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NEW HAVEN, CONN., SEPTEMBER, 1873.

VOL. III., NO. 9

TEACHERS' WAGES.

BY HENRY G. NEWTON, ESQ., NEW HAVEN.

"Average wages of teachers per month :—male, \$67.01 ; female, \$34.09."—[*Conn. School Report for 1873.*]

These figures convey a false impression. They are obtained by comparing the salaries of the superintendents of large graded schools with those of simple teachers. In the Common Schools of Connecticut, male and female teachers, for teaching schools of the same size and grade, receive the same, or nearly the same pay. It is hoped this statement will not be thought a truism, although it is apparent upon an analysis of the statistics contained in the Annual Report of the Board of Education. Doubtless there are many exceptions in either direction, but this is the average result, as we hope to show.

Mr. Baird certainly deserves great credit for the faithfulness and accuracy with which he has reduced the blundering and unwieldy mass of statistics, sent him by School Visitors, to such a methodical and comprehensive array of information ; but that \$67, to \$34, if true to the letter, is false in spirit. If we desired to ascertain, in some factory, the relative amount of wages paid to male and female laborers, we would not reckon among the male laborers the owner, the superintendent, the contractors, the overseers, the bookkeepers, and say : "Men here are receiving three times the pay of women." We should compare workmen of the same grade, and skill, and style of work ; and if we found men receiving \$2.00, and women \$1.50 for the same work, we should say : "The ratio of wages is as 4 to 3."

In examining this subject, then, we shall assume that a principal over a school of a dozen teachers, and seven hundred pupils, will, and ought to receive a much larger salary than one of his subordinates, who may, nevertheless, be as skillful a teacher as himself ; just as a man who has sufficient executive ability to run a factory will receive several times the salary of a workman who can do as good work as his superior.

It will be said that there are isolated instances

in which women have succeeded as principals, and have not received as much pay as their male competitors. If women can do as well as men in the highest places, the number of applicants for those places is suddenly increased tenfold. If the owner of a factory should find that he had ten men competent, and desirous, to fill the office of superintendent, when he had supposed he had but one, the pay of that position would be suddenly lowered ; for no one of them would be paid ten times the salary of nine others equally competent. Competent male teachers cannot be procured for the schools of New Haven for less than \$2,500 a year. If female principals can be found equally competent who will do the same work as well for \$1,500 a year, the result will be that, a few years hence, there will be no male principals in New Haven. During the transition period there will doubtless be some inconsistencies which will furnish the theme for some very spicy speeches and newspaper articles. At present, it is not fair to compare the salaries of principals of graded schools with those of simple teachers, as Secretary Northrop's able assistant has done in this report.

We shall further assume that the teachers of large schools will, and ought to receive higher pay than the teachers of small schools ; that the teachers of advanced scholars and of older scholars will, and ought to receive higher pay than the teachers of younger scholars. This much being premised, we hope to convince the readers of the CONNECTICUT SCHOOL JOURNAL, that if male teachers receive more pay than female teachers, it is because they have charge of graded schools, or of large, and rough, and hard schools, not because they are men ; and if there is any inequality, it is slight ; the Rev. Olympia Brown to the contrary notwithstanding.

Turning now to page 146 of the aforesaid report, we find that the apparent inequality of wages is largest in Hartford and New Haven counties, where male teachers are said to receive about three times the wages of females, and smallest in Tolland county, where the ratio is as 3 to 2.

We also find that in Hartford county there were in the summer 43 male teachers, and in New Ha-

ven county 29 male teachers, while in Tolland county there were only 5 male teachers. In Tolland county there was, however, in the winter a larger share of male teachers than in any other county. The difference in the ratio of wages, then, must be largely due to the larger number of male teachers of a higher grade in Hartford and New Haven counties, for only such teach in the summer.

The average pay of male teachers in Tolland county is \$41.16, of female teachers \$27.83. In the town of Vernon, as is evident from pages 144 and 147, there are two male principals receiving several times the salary of their subordinates. It would be manifestly unfair to compare them with the others. Omit the town of Vernon from our reckoning, and the average monthly wages of male teachers in Tolland county is \$34.20. The female teachers in that county receive \$27.82, or omitting the town of Vernon, about \$27.00 a month. But this is for both winter and summer schools. Unfortunately we have nothing to show the comparative amount of wages in winter and in summer, but it is well known that considerably higher wages are paid for teaching winter than summer schools. We may, perhaps, come near to the truth by assuming that the wages are in proportion to the number of scholars taught. Here the male teachers are, all but one, winter teachers.

The ratio of the number of scholars in winter and summer in these towns is about 4 to 3. Assuming that the wages of the teachers would be proportionate to the number of scholars, we find the 73 winter teachers (female) receiving \$32 a month, while the 116 summer teachers receive \$24, a month. Probably these figures are very nearly correct. \$34 a month for male teachers to \$32 for female teachers is not a very alarming inequality. But it is generally the case that the schools taught by men in the winter are the largest schools, and the hardest, and have the most advanced scholars. Take this into consideration, and we think it evident that lady teachers in Tolland county are receiving higher pay than men, for doing the same work.

Does the same state of facts exist in the other counties? It does. Let us look at the figures of New Haven county, page 132. In eight of these towns there appear to be male teachers having charge of graded schools. In five there were no male teachers at all. The only towns where male and female teachers are certainly found in the same grade, are those in which men teach only in the

winter, and ladies both winter and summer. There are twelve such towns in the county, wherein, in the winter of 1872, were found 28 male teachers, with an average salary of \$38.25 a month. The average salary of female teachers, winter and summer, in New Haven county, for the same year, was \$40.50. It may be said that this comparison is not fair, for in the larger towns there are lady principals and professional teachers, who receive large salaries and swell the average of the county. Well, by a careful computation, in these twelve towns, during that year, there were in the winter 89, and in the summer 113 female teachers, with an average monthly salary of \$30.18.

The ratio of the number of scholars in summer and winter schools is 5 to 4. By the same reasoning as in the former case, we conclude that the female teachers in the winter schools receive about \$35 a month. \$38 to \$35 is not an alarming inequality, probably not nearly as great as the difference in the schools taught.

There are only four towns in the State in which the reported average salary of female teachers is greater than that of male teachers. If the average salary of female teachers in winter were reported separately, so as to give us a fair comparison, probably the number would be largely increased. There is certainly no such disproportion as 2 to 1 in the State at large. Leave Hartford and New Haven, with their male principals and no male teachers, out of the account, and the average of \$67.00 a month suddenly drops to \$57. If we could sort out the other exceptions of the same kind as easily, it would be reduced another \$10, that is, be brought to a practical equality. It should furthermore be borne in mind, that in very many towns, where there is no academy or high school, it is the custom in winter to engage male teachers from our colleges, or elsewhere, who can teach the higher branches, and fit boys for college, and who receive a much higher salary than other male or female teachers.

There are 116 towns in the State. Of these 8 have each a population of more than 10,000. They contain one-third of the population of the State. In the winter of '71-72, there were 75 male teachers in these towns, or about one-tenth of those in the State. In the summer there were 66 male teachers, or one-third those of the State. These teachers, winter and summer, received an average of \$150 a month. Outside of these towns male teachers received an average of \$51.50 a month. Of these 9 winter teachers, 6 were in Middletown.

In 13 towns there were no male teachers in the common schools. In 39 more, the female teachers, winter and summer, received about three-fourths the pay of the male teachers. The fewer male teachers, the greater the apparent inequality.

The proposition with which we set out, we think, is proved. Does the same hold true of other States?

There is not space here for a lengthy examination, but if it is the same elsewhere, we should expect to find the inequality greatest where we found the fewest male teachers, and that where the number of each sex, in this occupation, approached equality, there would be not so much difference in the average remuneration. Of course, the causes we have indicated will operate to produce an apparent inequality, to some extent, in all the States.

We cull from the General School Report of 1871, our estimates being only approximations, but very nearly exact.

In Massachusetts, in 1870, the number of male was to the number of female teachers as 1 to 7; the pay as 5 to 2.

In Illinois, for the same year, the number of teachers was as 8 to 11; the pay as 4 to 3.

In Nebraska, in 1871, the male teachers slightly outnumbered the female. Their pay was as \$38.50 to \$36.60.

In Michigan the male teachers are about one-fourth of the whole, and receive, on the average, twice the pay of females.

In Pennsylvania the numbers are as 10 to 29; the pay as 41 to 33.

With wide variations, the general result is, that the inequalities in numbers and remuneration go together. Wherever the pay of the female is three-fourths that of the male teachers, we may conclude, for the reasons before given, that they are receiving as high or higher pay in the same grades, and for the same work.

Perhaps an apology is due for treating this subject in this way. The usual and orthodox argument on this subject, as all know, is an anecdote on this wise:

There was once a school in which several male teachers in succession had failed miserably in their attempts to preserve order and discipline. At last, in sheer despair, the committee engaged an educated and accomplished lady to make the attempt. She proved a splendid success, but of course received only about one-half the pay of the masculine failures. At the end of the year, her capacity having been fully demonstrated, and the committee de-

lighted, she demanded the same wages as were formerly received by the incapables. The committee were horrified at the bare suggestion of a lady's receiving a man's salary, and engaged a college senior. He failed even more miserably than his predecessors, and the committee were ignominiously forced to recant, and offer the lady her just due, and even to beg her, as a favor, to accept a fair salary.

This story, told in various ways, by writers of undoubted literary merit, coupled with such exhortations as those of the reverend lady at the last State Teachers' Convention, has, as we think, produced an erroneous and harmful impression.

It is not good for any class of workers to feel that they are undervalued, or underpaid. Such an impression will inevitably injure the quality of their work. Teaching—good teaching—is better than taking in washing. Doubtless it would be well for the profession, if many of our most poorly paid teachers would take the kindly advice so plentifully offered—strike for higher wages, and teach no more till they get them. It would be better for the pupils, also. The compensation of female teachers is steadily increasing. Year by year they are driving their competitors out of our common schools. Already they outnumber them as four to one. It may be that they will yet gain exclusive possession.

It is thought, rightly or wrongly, that it is necessary to have a man as principal of a large graded school. It is thought that physical strength is an essential; that a corps of lady teachers will yield a more ready and cheerful obedience to a man than to a woman. This may prove a delusion. The field is open; male teachers could not now have the places of the female teachers of our cities, if they would take them at the same price. During the slow driving out of male teachers, there must be some inequalities. But past experience proves that whatever posts female teachers prove themselves, as a class, qualified to fill, male teachers must yield to them or accept on equal terms.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

BY H. E. SAWYER, MIDDLETOWN.

Keeping school is one of the few occupations for which, in the opinion of many persons, no special preparation, no professional training, is necessary. This notion is a mischievous one. Prevailing in some communities, it leads them to seek for low-priced teachers. They demand but little, they are

willing to pay but little, and they usually get quite as little as they pay for.

Girls sixteen years old frequently have a good knowledge of the text-books used in the schools, and would pass a very creditable examination on them. Their parents knowing this, sometimes wonder and sometimes find fault because they are not at once appointed to desirable positions.

Young men and young women sometimes thrust themselves into the vocation of teaching with no adequate conception of the difficulties of the work, or of the qualifications requisite for its acceptable performance.

Candidates present themselves for examination while ignorant of the history and principles of education as a science, and of the methods and processes of the art of teaching.

These statements are not made at random, but are conclusions reluctantly drawn from actual experiences in examinations. Candidates who have appeared well in Arithmetic and Grammar have generally given unsatisfactory answers to questions in "Theory and Practice," and have sometimes even completely failed to apprehend their meaning. The following may serve as specimens of such questions for illustration:—What are the principal intellectual faculties? and what is the natural order of their development? What faculties are mainly addressed? and what results are specially aimed at in Object Lessons to the youngest pupils?

To pupils of an intermediate grade:—How may attention be cultivated? What motives may be brought to bear on pupils? What is your opinion of "Self-reporting"? of prizes? What methods of punishment are most efficient and least liable to abuse? How shall habits of neatness and order be cultivated? What means would you employ to cultivate industry, purity, truthfulness, filial piety, patriotism, reverence? What strictly professional books have you read? What articles in the *Connecticut School Journal* have been most profitable or suggestive to you this year? What are the legal rights and responsibilities of teachers in this State? Do you understand keeping the "Register" in all points as required by law?

Questions of this sort might be multiplied indefinitely, but these will suffice for the present purpose.

Teaching is an art, and skill in it is to be acquired, as in any other art, by study of its principles and practice of its processes. There is a science of education. It must be mastered, as other sciences are, by study of its history, its principles, its

current literature. That literature is already voluminous and is yearly increasing. There are normal schools, institutes, conventions, periodicals. There are good schools into which suitable persons could be received as apprentices, at an expense to them no greater than is incurred in learning the trade of the milliner or the shoemaker. There are so many facilities for acquiring special preparation for teaching, the work is of so much intrinsic importance, and the pecuniary and social inducements to enter upon it are so rapidly increasing, that the attempt to engage in it with less special preparation than would be necessary to the successful pursuit of a common trade seems like presumption.

DRAWING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY SAMUEL C. MANN, MIDDLETOWN.

It is now, I think, pretty generally conceded throughout our State, that drawing should be taught in our public schools. Our larger cities have already introduced it as one of the regular branches of study, and some of our smaller places have followed their example. Still in the great majority of our schools no attention is paid to this important branch. This we all know ought not so to be, and therefore we must meet and answer the hard question, How shall this condition of things be changed? Something more ought to be done than we are now doing. Connecticut should not lag behind her sister States in this matter.

Now it seems to me that the first thing to be done is to keep the subject before the people. On looking over the columns of this paper, I find the subject mentioned, during the last six months, but four times (excepting in the advertisements), once each in connection with the Normal School, the schools of New Britain, New Haven, and Middletown. Where are all the other cities, New London, Norwich, Willimantic, Meriden, Bridgeport, and the rest, that we don't hear from them? Those of us who are teachers or school officers certainly ought to know what is being done in these places, and just how the work is being accomplished, in order that we may have the benefit of others' experience in addition to our own. Just at present, while the subject is new to most of us, we need all the help we can get.

Therefore let us write more and talk more about this subject. Let us have short articles in the "JOURNAL" and in our newspapers often. Little news items will help us much, especially if they

come from places where a good system has been successfully introduced. It is the practice we want now rather than the theory.

YOUNG TEACHERS' DEPARTMENT.

ADVERB OR ADJECTIVE ?

BY M. PITMAN, NEW HAVEN.

Our little lady, not yet in her teens, has recently obtained new light on the use of "ly" as an affix of certain modifying words, and occasionally takes us to task for omitting that syllable from such words, in some very common expressions. In her new-born zeal for correct practice in this particular, she is quite apt to over do the matter. She has had a delightful excursion with her friends. They chose a position on the boat from which the shore looked "very prettily." "The sun set *beautifully*," "the moon rose *brightly*," and they all "felt very *happy*." She lost her veil and then she "felt *badly*." Finally they all "arrived *safely* in New York." Evidently there is some confusion in the young lady's mind in relation to the use of adjectives and adverbs.

This would not be remarkable, did it not suggest another fact that is remarkable—namely, that there exists a degree of confusion about this subject in the minds of many *teachers*, notwithstanding much has been written by way of elucidating it. Indeed, many of the grammars now and recently in use, treat the point in question in such a manner as to leave only doubt and uncertainty in the minds of scholars who consult them. If the young learner possesses a spirit of investigation and has an opportunity to look into the grammars of several authors, confusion and perplexity almost necessarily result. A few quotations will illustrate this fact :

"Adverbs must be carefully distinguished from adjectives. To tell them apart, see in each case to what the word in question relates. If it relates to a *noun*, it is an adjective ; but if it relates to a *verb*, *adjective*, *adverb*, *preposition*, *adjunct*, or the *whole idea*, it is an adverb."—QUACKENBOS.

This is a sufficiently plain statement ; but the student takes up another author and gets quite a different idea :

"Adjectives sometimes belong to *verbs in the infinitive mood*, or to *a part of a sentence*." * * * "Adjectives are often used to modify the sense of *other adjectives* or the *action of verbs*, and to express the quality of things in connection with the action by which that quality is produced."—KIRKHAM.

A little confused by these contradictory statements, he tries again with the following result :

"An adjective is a word whose *sole* use is to limit the meaning of a *noun* or *pronoun*."—WELCH.

A remarkably clear definition, but the next author examined declares :

"Adjectives are used to modify *infinitives*, *parts of clauses*, and *whole propositions*. Adjectives are used both to modify the *action of the verb* and its *subject*."—WELD.

He takes up yet two other authors, and finds them quite at variance—thus :

"Every adjective qualifies a substantive, expressed or understood."—BULLION.

"An adjective used with a verb in the infinitive mode to express an abstract quality, *does not* refer to *any noun*, either *expressed* or *implied*."—TOWER.

Yet once more, and he is rewarded with this brace of sentiments :

"To express *manner*, or *describe the act*, the *adverb* should be used ; to describe *the object*, the *adjective*."—KERL.

"The *adjective* following *copulative verbs*, generally indicates the *manner of the action*, while at the same time it denotes some *property* of the subject."—GREENE.

Such conflicting quotations might be multiplied *ad libitum*, and they are quite bewildering to the young grammarian. How can this bewilderment be avoided ?

First, take this definition of the adjective : "An adjective is a word, or part of speech, added, or *fit to be added*, to a noun or substantive to express its quality or some circumstance respecting it." (*Worcester's Dictionary*). To illustrate : "To be *wise* is better than to be *rich*." Here the words *wise* and *rich*, though *not* "added," are "*fit to be added* to a noun or substantive," and are therefore within the definition.

Secondly, bear in mind that every simple sentence or proposition consists of two essential parts : namely, "that part of the sentence which makes a statement," and "that part about which the statement is made" (*Swinton*).

Thirdly, keep clearly in mind that these two parts are distinct and separate. No word in the subject can be a grammatical modifier of the predicate, nor can any word in the predicate be a grammatical modifier of the subject. Whatever the word may be that assists the verb to make a statement, that word is a *modifier* of the *verb*, whether it be a noun, pronoun, adverb, or adjective.

"All men are mortal." Here the statement is, "are mortal." Those two words constitute the predicate. The adjective *mortal* limits the verb *are*, and *does not* modify *men*. "All *mortal* men *are*," is another and not an equivalent statement. The adjective cannot be transferred to the subject without changing the idea.

"Mary suddenly became *thoughtful*." In this

sentence *thoughtful* is as much a part of the predicate as *suddenly*. *Thoughtful* is an adjective, and limits the verb *became*. It does not modify *Mary*. "*Thoughtful Mary suddenly became*," does not convey the meaning intended, if indeed it expresses any idea at all.

To say, as some grammarians do, that the adjectives, in these and like examples, *relate* to the nouns, is little better than nonsense. Every predicate relates to the subject; but it is not and cannot be a modifier of it.

If, in the light of the principles thus far assumed, we enter into an analysis of the relations of adjectives, we shall find that an adjective may be used—

I. To limit or modify a noun or substantive. This is the most common use of the adjective and requires no additional remark here.

II. To form part of the predicate in connection with the verbs *be*, *seem*, *appear*, *become*, and the like.

EXAMPLES:—The council were *unanimous*. The officer may be *absent*. The sick man seems *better*. The account appears *correct*. The wakeful owl sometimes becomes *sleepy*. "Upon what meat doth this our Cæsar feed, that he *is grown* so *great*?"—*Shakespeare*.

In each of these examples, the adjective limits the verb, and with it forms the predicate of the sentence. The predicate adjective *does not* modify the noun.

III. To limit an infinitive or a participle.

EXAMPLES:—To be *healthy* is better than to be *rich*. Being *rich* is a very different thing from being *happy*.

IV. To modify the meaning of a verb by expressing a quality or state which is the result of the action of the verb.

EXAMPLES:—Eggs boil *hard*. Apples boil *soft*. Clay burns *red*. Copper burns *blue*. The house is painted *green*. Dig the well *deep*.

V. Adjectives may be used with verbs to express internal states of feeling, and impressions made on the mind through the bodily senses.

EXAMPLES:—John feels *bad* to-night, or *sad*, or *sick*, or *well*, or *happy* or *gay*. The poor old man looks *cold* and *hungry*. The new bell sounds very *pleasant*, or *harsh*, or *strange*, or *musical*. The apple tastes *sour*, or *sweet*. The cloth feels *smooth*, or *rough*, or *silky*.

In these examples, the state of feeling, or the character of the impression made upon the mind is described, in each instance; not the time, place, manner, or degree of the action. Hence adjectives are properly used, and they modify the verbs to which they are severally joined.

'John feels *badly*,' 'the bell sounds *strangely*,' 'the apple tastes *sweetly*,' are common errors. No one would say 'the apple tastes *sourly*.'

"We may say of a dead man, that he *looks fierce* (i. e., has a fierce appearance); but we cannot say that he *looks fiercely*, though he may frequently have done so when he was alive."—*Bingham's Grammar*.

VI. With many verbs to modify or limit their meaning when the speaker or writer intends, in connection with the verb, to express a property, state, or circumstance, and sometimes even to describe the *manner* in which the action is performed.

EXAMPLES:—Stand *firm*. He sits *silent*. The throbbing heart lies *still*. How long I remained *insensible*, I cannot tell. The weather continues *warm*. Why does thy cheek turn *pale*? Should the weather prove *unpropitious*, we will return. Your favor came *safe* to hand. The young animals were allowed to run *wild*. "What steed from the desert flies *frantic* and far?" Socrates was esteemed *wise*. Some are born *great*. "The wind is blowing *fresh*," i. e., there is a brisk movement in the air. *Fresh* in this instance denotes *brisk*, *strong*, somewhat *vehement*, and characterizes the motion expressed by the verb. [Note that participles, like adjectives, are sometimes modifiers of verbs.]—"They came *running*." "The sea sweeps *roaring* into the cave." "They lay *trembling* with fear."

In all the examples given, and in scores of others that might be given, with other verbs than those used above, adverbs could not properly be substituted for the predicate adjectives. It is perhaps impossible to make a general rule by which, in his own use of language, one may in all cases be infallibly guided in the choice between adjectives and adverbs. By a thoughtful study of the hundreds of examples that may be found in writers of undoubted authority, and by a careful consideration of the exact idea to be expressed, every teacher may and ought to obtain such an understanding of their nature and uses, as will enable them always to choose correctly.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

BY MRS. S. A. BUCK.

It is not needful to argue the necessity of strict order and discipline in the school-room. How to secure this end, is a difficult and important question. It would seem that a cultivated intellect, though highly essential in the work of teaching, is not the only requisite to the work of school government. For instances are not rare where teachers of fine

mental culture and capacity fail lamentably, in the matter of discipline. Their occasional spasmodic efforts to bring their pupils out of a chronic state of insubordination and disorder would be laughable, if they were not pitiable on account of their futility.

Again, there are persons, of perhaps very limited education, who succeed admirably as disciplinarians, whose schools are models of systematic and quiet regularity. A teacher of this sort would probably be unable to explain how he accomplishes such desirable results, for the reason that his secret is not in his methods, but in himself.

There are those who are "born to command,"—who possess a power of authority which is irresistible. This is a natural gift—it can neither be cultivated or acquired. It is this quality, in connection with other remarkable endowments, which goes to make up those great leaders of whom history gives us many examples. If a teacher possesses this inherent force, his success in government is certain, but capable of no explanation, and of no avail to those not similarly gifted.

Others there are whose success is owing to a peculiar skill or faculty which is called tact. This is also wonderfully potent, but it is bestowed alone by nature, no amount of culture or pains-taking can produce it. Still another class of persons may be instanced, who exercise a remarkable influence over those with whom they come in contact, yet with no apparent effort on their part. By some subtle force of their own nature, they are able to arouse, to inspire, to sway, and to lead others as they will. Scientifically speaking, such individuals are charged with a positive current of electricity, and their power of attraction is called magnetism.

Neither of these gifts can be simulated—and parents can make no greater mistake than that of attempting to govern by authority, when really they possess no authority. This error necessitates the use of penalties and punishments, often more harmful than beneficial in their results. But lacking either and all of these desirable natural qualifications, what means shall a teacher use to gain control over his pupils, and bring them into the required state of subordination and discipline? It is evident this can be done only by the exercise of an intelligent will-power. This power is resident in all, to a certain degree, but requires to be educated. If the will is originally weak, it may be greatly strengthened by due care and training. If it is naturally strong, it must be restrained and tempered by a wise judgment. But the will of the teacher must be an active, pervading force in the

school-room, unseen and noiseless; but steady and irresistible as the flow of a river. Otherwise, rules and regulations, though they may be numerous and stringent, are of no avail.

The executive ability of any teacher will be found to depend mainly on the energy and strength of his will; and almost nothing is impossible to accomplish, when this power is developed to the highest degree of determination, tenacity, and vigor.

Another thought may well be added. Teachers may acquire a great influence over those they have in charge, by treating them with scrupulous and unvarying courtesy, kindness, and even deference. It is said that every human being has an angel in him, and "we know not what we shall be." By keeping in sight the possible nobility of the child, by estimating him not according to what he is, but according to what he may be, and treating him accordingly, very much is gained. His self-respect is awakened, he is aroused to lively effort and patient endeavor, and thus a long step is taken in the right direction. The angel begins to grow. It is not strange that this mode of treatment, wisely and steadily pursued, accomplishes great results, for He who made the Golden Rule, understood perfectly the workings of the human mind and heart.

The true teacher must have always at heart the best good of each and all his pupils. For this he must labor, with earnest purpose and untiring zeal, remembering that when he has taught them the necessity, art, and practice of self-government, he has achieved the highest possible success.

LITERARY CULTURE FOR CHILDREN.

BY MISS EMMA M. GOLDTHWAITE, NEW BRITAIN.

While planning courses of study in English literature for students preparing for the work of teaching, I have often been led to inquire how much of this subject-matter can be given to pupils in the lower grades of schools, and how can it be most effectively imparted. The lack of interest evinced by so many of our young people in solid reading and literature of a higher order, together with the eagerness with which they peruse the vast amount of trash with which our book-stores are filled, is sufficient evidence to me of the mode of early training in this direction, and of the importance of guiding the youthful mind to a higher standard of literary excellence, and of cultivating a purer literary taste. I believe it to be entirely possible to educate children beyond dime novels, so that instead of being obliged to forbid the reading after a

taste has been acquired, we shall have so elevated the mind as to render the perusal of such works insipid and distasteful to them.

The undisciplined mind of the little ones cannot, however, comprehend the elaborate systems introduced into our high schools and seminaries, neither can the same method of instruction be wisely used. Still we would desire to acquaint them with the "best thoughts of the best men;" to give them some knowledge of those authors whom the world recognizes as masters. Such an acquaintance would cultivate the intellect, strengthen the mental faculties, lead them to think to some purpose, and enable them to grasp with some power knowledge of other kinds. It would suggest beautiful and ennobling trains of thought; enable them to converse and listen intelligently, and tend to develop literary talent, which, unless called out by some discipline in the school-room, would lie dormant under the illiterate influence of many homes.

I am aware of many hindrances in the way of pursuing systematic instruction of this kind in our common schools. The age and attainments of the pupils demands a particularly careful kind of teaching to make the matter comprehended by them, and at the same time interesting to them. This fact, together with the lack of text-books, renders oral teaching the only acceptable kind. Of course this necessitates a general culture and a wide range of reading on the part of the teacher. The most common excuse of all, want of time, is another hindrance, so that unless the teacher is intensely interested in the matter, we fear the hindrances will debar many from attempting any plan we might propose. Our young pupils demand this of us, and we do not fulfill our obligations to them until we open the doors and lead them in a little way into the glorious fields of English composition.

The question now arises, how can this be done? In the first place, how can we find time? I answer by taking some of the time devoted to arithmetic. However practical arithmetic and algebra may be, we believe the time devoted to them may be considerably lessened without any detriment to the pupil, if the time which is allotted be wisely used. It need take a comparatively short time to conquer the few principles of arithmetic, and when the principles are understood this application is easy. Take a few minutes daily from some branch from which you can best spare it, and the aggregate will perhaps give you fifteen, twenty or thirty minutes once or twice a week that you can afford to use for our literature. The exercises may be oral and

general. Let the teacher decide in her own mind what course she will pursue—whether she will take some of the writers of the day independently of each other, or study some of the older authors, or combine with lessons in history, study of writers who appeared in different historical epochs. Either plan would have certain advantages. For illustration, suppose she decides upon the last. In preparation for the lesson, she will prepare some account in story form of the times of Chaucer—the interesting customs of the feudal system and the gradual transition to the freedom of after years. The little ones would be interested to know how books were made and issued in these early days of England, and of how Chaucer's writings were given to the world, and the great expense incurred. Bring into the class a picture of Chaucer, with his great good-natured face and his peculiar dress. A brief sketch of his life could only be obtained; sufficient, however, to make the man stand out from among the half mythical personages of his time in a character attractive for its love of humanity and nature.

One or two of the Canterbury tales I have known little children to listen to with rapt attention, and the tears to start at the misfortunes of the little Jewish child. This would be perhaps a more difficult character than most of those that succeed. Do you doubt of the interest that can be awakened in the "Fairie Queen" of Spenser, in some of the plays of Shakespeare, in the life of the gallant Sir Philip Sidney, in the beautiful verses of Wordsworth, and in thousands of the productions of later days? Require the pupils to select for general rhetorical exercises some of the gems of literature; have ready a variety yourself in case they can not gain access to such books as contain them. We are glad to see a change in the contents of children's literature. Many a choice gem finds its way between the covers of the school reader, and periodicals now published for the little ones are contributed to by some of our choicest writers. These may all be successfully used by the teacher in her lessons in literature.

But there may be various reasons why in certain schools the teacher cannot devote special time to such exercises. Can she then accomplish nothing in this direction? We will see. We will suppose that the reading lesson for the day is that beautiful extract from Dickens' "Old Curiosity Shop," the "Death of Little Nell." Do you imagine the little folks are not sufficiently affected by the sad story, to desire to know who Little Nell was? Do you doubt the interest that will be awakened and

the good done, if you spend a little time in telling the story of the lovely child's wanderings with her grandfather, and indeed her whole history? Turn their attention to the extract in hand; point out to them some of the particularly beautiful passages: the comparison of death to a sleep—"so beautiful and calm; so fair to look upon;" the affecting tribute, in the touching grief of the friends. After analyzing the beautiful thoughts (beautiful in themselves), show how much they are enhanced by their beautiful dress, the language. If they may appreciate this, they will understand to some extent the power of the writer. Then they will be ready to inquire who the writer was, when did he live; and a desire excited, among many of the pupils to read the whole story of Little Nell and possibly of Little Joe, Paul Dombey, etc. Thus each reading lesson may be made a means of literary culture, each rhetorical exercise may cultivate a literary taste, if systematic instruction cannot be given.

Literature is full of inspiration for young as well as old. Teacher, in working for your pupils you will gain a rare amount of general information and a knowledge of books which will be invaluable to you as a teacher and a member of society; and not least, but best of all, a knowledge of character, an acquaintance with the inner lives, the souls of men, which will tend to elevate and ennoble your own heart and soul. Can you afford to neglect it? In regard to helps in form of books, you need but a few. One or two reliable cyclopedias and a compendium, with a book of selections from the authors therein discussed, which is published with some of the recent ones, will do to commence with. Then add to your library, one by one, such books as you most love and enjoy, and in a short time you will have all you need to accomplish much in your work.

MISCELLANY.

COMMENCEMENT CARNIVAL AT OXFORD.

BY ELIHU BURRITT.

Many Americans have witnessed the carnival at Rome, and had been astonished at what they saw and heard. It has amazed them that the whole population of a great city, rich and poor, educated and ignorant, could give themselves up to such silly and noisy vagaries. But the carnival at Rome does not equal the Oxford Commencement in strange incongruities. For the great masses of the Eternal City are frivolous and character-

less, amused with the lowest forms of vulgar fun. The classes, who share the grotesque anarchy of the hour with them, do it to increase the popular enjoyment. But the Commencement hour at Oxford is produced by a far different set of actors, and for the enjoyment or amusement of a far different set of spectators. In these characteristics there is nothing elsewhere in the wide world to compare with it. Fewer Americans have witnessed it than its vulgar competitor at Rome. But all reading men have heard of it, and perhaps many of them hope to see it some day. I once realized this hope, and saw what I had never seen described to the life, and what I shall not attempt to describe myself so as to convey anything more than an approximate idea of the scene.

I deemed myself highly favored in procuring a ticket of admission many days beforehand, through one of the venerable professors of the university. A citizen of our young country, who is susceptible of historical impressions, feels them vividly in this old, gray commonwealth of colleges. They make for him a more awe-inspiring presence than Napoleon assigned to the pyramids of Egypt. Their time-eaten walls, showing their deep wrinkles through the fondling ivy, seem permeated with a thousand years of the world's best learning. Grand histories and grander lives of great men have left their foot-prints around these august fountains of erudition. One might think that this deep and solemn presence of glorious ages, dead but speaking, would make even young men walk softly under it, or quiet the flow of boisterous mirth to a harmless current. Of all the buildings in which such an influence might be expected to operate in this way, the University Theater would seem to have the pre-eminence. This is the very Mars' Hill of Oxford—the arena where its athletes and pretorian bands of Minerva have contended for prizes which were as guerdons of immortality to ambitious competitors.

I was early at the door of this famous edifice, but not so early as a hundred others, from all parts of the kingdom, half of whom were probably graduates, coming up to pay their tributes of affection and admiration to Alma Mater. Every moment for half an hour at the entrance swelled the gathering crowd to at least a thousand men, all pressing toward the door. When it at last opened there was the regular English rush, like the dash of a storming party against a fortified gate or bastion. In less than a minute, seemingly, the crowd occupied every foot of standing space of the paved bit or arena of the theater. The circular seats that arose to the gallery proper from within a few steps of this level, were already nearly filled with the beauty and grace of the realm, representing hundreds of its best families. Many of them were the mothers or sisters of the young athletes, or other aspirants for the honors the day was to decide or bestow. This surrounding cloud of witnesses, illumined and tinted with all that could give lustre and loveliness

to beauty, grew more and more compact until its variegated crest and fringe belted the entire space between the arena and gallery, with the exception of a small section in the center reserved for the great dons of the different colleges or halls. A few minutes of almost embarrassing waiting followed. Speaking geographically or *hedographically* only, heaven and earth were brought very closely together, or the black, swaying crowd of men on the pit floor, and the resulting, fluttering mountain, tinted with every hue, that arose by gentle declivity along three sides of the building. The two clouds seemed to act and react upon each other in this close and unmodified presence. For ten minutes a thousand men had nothing else to do than look into the faces of nearly as many ladies, all in the bloom of English beauty and fashion, who, in turn, were shut up to the scenery of manly life that filled the arena below. The electricity of a reciprocal interest might be imagined from the contact of so many eyes all aglow with the light of the hour.

Did any one ever hear the crack of a dozen thunder-claps, and the rush and roar of a black tempest out of a clear sky? Then it was nearest like what we saw and heard as suddenly in this grand old theater at the moment I have described. The door of the upper-gallery burst open, and the undergraduate "gods" rushed in like the storming force of the Redan. The fierce and tempestuous host was led by a red-haired hero, in a long and armless toga of seedy black, flowing out from his shoulders like a dun banner of a buccaneer or brigand. With hair streaming in the same direction, and eyes full of fire, he rushed down the gallery, shouting, "order! order!" as if the circular mountain of a thousand ladies, and the thousand quiet gentlemen at its base, were engaged in a Kilkenny contest. He led the storming force, and no thousand men ever dashed into the breach of a beleagured city with louder vociferation. The whole reading world knows how Oxford muscle is trained for boat-racing, and what feats it performs in this line of exercise. But the feats of lung-power achieved in this grand old theater by the undergraduates surpasses anything accomplished on the Thames at the great boat-race. It is well known and acknowledged that no crowd of men in the world can discharge such a volley of cheers as the same number of Englishmen. Nowhere else can you hear such thundering cataracts of the human voice. Foreign sovereigns visiting England are struck with astonishment at this prodigious outpour. Who heard it in London when a million gave an English cheer to the gentle, blue-eyed Alexandra, will never forget it. The Persian Shah will remember it above all the incidents and pageants of his receptions. One listening to the roar and crash of voices in the Oxford theater on this occasion might imagine that it was the training-school in which this great lung-power of the entire nation was developed to such unparalleled volume and vociferation.

There could not have been more than a thousand undergraduate tongues engaged in the explosion. But it was absolutely terrific. These young men, doubtless, belonged to the best families in the kingdom; enjoying and acquiring all the refinements the best social education could impart. Here was, perhaps, the most highly educated and cultivated company of ladies and gentlemen that any object could bring together, to witness and admire their acquisitions and deportment. Not one of those young gowmsmen in the gallery would have opened his mouth to one of those elegantly dressed ladies without modulating his voice to its most polished accents. But now his tongue, and a thousand like it, were unbridled to the wildest liberty. Their crash, claps, and rattling volleys were astounding. The mothers, sisters, and friends-apparent of nearer relation, looked up with manifest astonishment at actors in this carnival whom they recognized.

In a few minutes the voice-volleys assumed a new force and direction. The obstreperous gods of the gallery, in their wildest liberty, are very fastidious, and brook nothing common or unclean in the crowd of spectators. Their eager eyes quickly detect any trifling variation in the regulation dress, and pour down upon the victim's head a crushing avalanche of indignation. Such a victim they soon discovered standing very near me—a plucky young Englishman in salt-and-pepper pants. Instantly the batteries of the galleries opened upon him. The hot hail of indignation fell down upon him in hissing volleys. I never before realized what the finger of scorn could mean. Here were a thousand pointed at the victim from three sides of the gallery; and every one of them seemed to crack and snap with an electric discharge of scorn. The thunder was equal to the lightning, and no tempest in the natural world was ever fuller of both. The whole assembly of spectators followed the direction of the fated object with increasing sympathy or interest. He stood in stout defiance against the attack for a long time. Being very near, I watched his face to see if the lightning had struck him. Occasionally a streak of crimson ran down his cheeks; but he stood firm, as if determined to brave it out till the storm was exhausted. One of the file leaders of the gallery, seemingly astonished at this obstinacy, and taking it to be ignorance of the cause of the attack, took off his black gown and waved it at the man, as if to show him that he had come in without the regulation garment. But in doing this he showed his own pepper-and-salt pants, which nullified the force of his expostulation. For several minutes the battle raged with increasing fury. The bombarded man stood proud, firm, and defiant. At last, as nothing could be done until the tempest ceased, a policeman made his way to the object of all this wrath, and conducted him out of the building; and his exit was marked by rounds of cheers that would have done sufficient honor to the fall of Sebastopol.

Hardly a minute elapsed after this incident before another filled the house with still more emphatic uproar. The masters of the twenty-one colleges, headed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University, and followed by a procession of distinguished scholars, now entered by the south door and moved up through the crowd to what might be called the throne-end of the hall. With them came the proctors and other dignitaries, brought more directly into disciplinary relation to the students. Now for the moment of high carnival. Every undergraduate tongue is free. All the repressions of a year are removed; all the pent up feelings may have their outburst; and they did with marvelous force. They poured down upon the procession of dons, in crimson robes, such a fall of bursting groans and hissing rockets of derision as seemed to stun their march. What particular masters or proctors were meant and hit by these shells of indignation may possibly have been known to themselves, though the conscience must have taken the place of the ear to reach this conclusion. But all this belonged to the carnival. The grand dignitaries of the university walked this gauntlet with perfect unanimity, and ascended to their seats with suave and smiling dignity, just as if the whole scene were a part of the regular programme. As bands play at great dinners between and during the courses, so the gallery gods seasoned the exercises at their sweet will and taste; cheering and hissing, *ad libitum*. First in order was the conferring of titles and honors on eminent scholars, in short speeches in Latin. Cheers or groans from above responded without fear or favor, or regard to any distinction which a great reputation had won. Cheers for "The young ladies;" for "Engaged ladies;" for "Married ladies," alternated with cheers, or *non placet* voices responding to the honors conferred. When a distinguished Edinburgh professor's name was announced for an LL.D. one of the gods shouted, "Who is he? What has he done?" The same cross-fire was kept up during the essays and orations of the graduates. Midway in the utterance of a Latin sentence, "Three cheers for the lady in blue!" or some other outburst, would drown the speaker's voice.

Taking it all in all, considering the place, the actors, spectators, and influences which one might think should affect its character, the Oxford Commencement or commemoration must surpass the carnival at Rome in many stranger incongruities.

—Christian Union.

SHOULD AMERICAN YOUTH BE EDUCATED ABROAD.—No. I.

My first letter upon this subject closed with a comparison of a course of study in a Berlin Gymnasium with that pursued in the parallel years at Phillips Academy and Yale College;—a comparison which demonstrated to the eye that, in respect of discipline in the classics and the mathematics, and of general attain-

ments in literature, history, and science, the American youth from 12 to 20 would gain nothing by forsaking his home-schools for the schools of Germany. The Gymnasium is the gate way to the University; in the University Faculties corresponding to the schools of Law, of Medicine, and of Theology in the United States, and to the post graduate faculty of Philosophy and the Arts lately established at Yale, Harvard, Princeton, and other colleges, are grouped about a common centre; instruction is given wholly by lectures, and the student selects his own course, and in the course his favorite professors. The Gymnasium and the University are sought by the sons of the wealthy, the titled, and the cultivated classes, with whom education is a passport to good society, and also by young men who are looking forward to one of the liberal professions, to the Civil Service, to a Professorship, or to the pursuit of literature, philosophy, or science in some specialty of the higher learning. This course is denominated "the *spiritual* culture."

But Germany has been awake also to the demands of recent times for an education directed to more practical ends, and based more largely upon the physical sciences and the knowledge of things, than upon letters and the classics. For such education provision is made in the *Gewerbe*-schools, crowned with the *Gewerbe*-Academy or Polytechnic. The course in the latter as to topics and aims is parallel to that of the Scientific Schools in America, and since the German Polytechnic is supposed to offer special advantages to American youth, I propose to test this claim by an analytical comparison of the best specimens of each—say the Polytechnic at Karlsruhe or Berlin, with the "Sheffield" at New Haven. In the *Gewerbe*-School, which is preparatory to the Polytechnic, the division and sub-division of classes correspond with that of the Gymnasium; but the four upper classes will answer for a comparison with—say the "Hopkins Grammar School" at New Haven as a preparation for the Sheffield. These classes study as follows:—

1. *Religion*: Biblical History; Heathenism and Judaism; the first century of the Church; the Augsburg Confession; the Canon of the Scriptures.
2. *German*: The poets, lyric, epic, and dramatic; history of German literature in the Middle Ages and in modern times.
3. *French*: Thierry, Rollin, Voltaire, Souvestre, Montesquieu, Barran, Moliere, Guizot, with grammatical exercises, translations, and criticisms.
4. *English*: Survey of English literature; study of selected authors, in which Dickens' Child's History of England, and Irving's Sketch Book are combined with Bancroft, Macaulay, and Shakespeare.
5. *History and Geography*: Greece, the Orient, Rome, the Middle Ages, Modern Times.
6. *Mathematics*: Algebra, Logarithms, Geometry, both analytic and synthetic, Trigonometry, Stereometry, elements of differential and integral computation, with special reference to analytical Mechanics.

7. *Physics* : Heat, Electricity, Magnetism, Motion, Steam, Electrodynamics, Cosmical Physics, Optics, Acoustics.

8. *Chemistry and Natural History* : Botany, Zoology, elements of Anatomy and Physiology of plants and animals ; Crystallography, Inorganic Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Geognosy, Chemical Technology with laboratory work, elements of Comparative Anatomy. Neither Latin nor Greek is taught at all in this school.

In comparison with the Academic preparation for a scientific school in the United States, the *Gewerbe*-school shows a superiority in the study of French (and naturally of German), and in the departments of Physics and Natural History, where the studies of the Freshman year in the Sheffield are to some extent anticipated in the *Prima* of the *Gewerbe*. But in Mathematics, Geography, History and English, the Academy boy in America is carried quite as far as the *Gewerbe* boy in Germany ; and, besides, the Academy boy has a training in Latin and Greek, in Cæsar, Cicero, Virgil, and Xenophon, of which the *Gewerbe* boy has nothing at all—though one would think that a scientific education should embrace at least the rudiments of the languages from which the terminology of science is constructed ! Thus far, then, the account between the Academy and the *Gewerbe* is fairly balanced ; and the apparent superiority of the *Gewerbe* in preliminary scientific studies disappears when we pursue the comparison between the "Scientific" and the "Polytechnic ;" for it is then seen to be not at all a difference of quality or degree in the matter of a scientific course, but simply of the distribution or classification of studies through a given term of years.

Commonly the boys in the *Gewerbe* school are of a lower grade socially than the boys in the Gymnasium—especially in large cities. As a friend expressed it, "Gentlemen send their sons to the Gymnasium and the University, only the common people send to the *Gewerbe* schools." From ocular and nasal inspection of some of these schools, I must say that an American boy of nice family ought not to be subjected to such companionship ; for if "cleanliness is akin to godliness," the average German have sadly fallen from grace ! And for that matter, even in the Berlin University an American student informs me that his German seat-mates disgust him daily, in the brief intervals of the lectures, by taking from their pockets bread, cheese, and sausage, done up in a smutty newspaper, eating with a jack-knife, and then combing their hair with unwashed hands. Such habits are largely national ; but one sees less of them in the Gymnasium and the University than in the *Gewerbe*-school. Many boys use the latter as boys once used the Free Academy in New York as a recommendation for business. The catalogue of one of the best of these schools in Berlin shows that the lowest class average about 100 the middle classes only from forty to fifty, and the upper classes dwindle down to ten or twelve.

Coming now to the Polytechnic, to which the *Gewerbe*-school is preparatory ; how does this compare with the corresponding scientific school in America—say the "Sheffield" at New Haven ? (I beg to be understood that I take Yale University as a standard, with no invidious reference to other American colleges, but because I am familiar with Yale and have its catalogue at hand.) To draw out in detail the comparison of studies, text-books, exercises, etc., between Sheffield and a German Polytechnic, would require more than a column of the *Observer*, so the reader will be so good as to accept the writer's testimony from a minute analysis, that each and every study in each and every subdivision, is as specifically and as thoroughly provided for at the Sheffield Scientific, as at the Carlsruhe Polytechnic, not excepting the German and French languages—with only this proper difference, that the prominence given in the Polytechnic to German history and literature, in the Sheffield is assigned to English literature, history and composition. If a boy does not master his own language, as to style and expression, between twelve and twenty, he never will ; and no matter how many foreign languages he may know, his knowledge will be of no avail, unless he can use it readily, clearly and effectively in his own tongue.

The superiority of European education is pretty much a tradition, which many cling to through ignorance of what has been gained in America during the past generation. What would I not give to-day, to have had in my youth the classical and literary training of a German gymnasium and university as compared with what Yale College could offer forty years ago ! But for the youth of to-day, the difference is not worth the voyage across the sea. Unless private reasons should otherwise direct, the *undergraduate* period, whether in the college or in the scientific school, can be spent to better advantage at home than abroad, even for the general object of intellectual training, apart from the specific adaptation of that training to American life.

After graduation, as was said in the first letter, the well-balanced student should come to Germany, if possible for a year or two of eclectic study at a university. For the same reason the young German who is looking forward to public life, and who would fit himself for the responsibilities of these times, should go to Yale or Harvard for a year or two to study in political philosophy, and in the constitutional history and law of the United States. And what a world of good it would do these young German licentiates to spend a year or two at New Haven, Andover, or Union, in learning to put *thought* into their sermons ! The immense superiority of the American pulpit over every other excepting that of Scotland, lies in its thinking power ; and it will be a sorry day for American churches if, in a blind quest of popular effect, or of the baser element of commercial success, they shall part with one iota of what has made their strength, their glory, and their increase. Said a

leading English minister to me: "Your American ministers *think*, where we Englishmen *talk*." Said the greatest professor of theology in Germany, "We have no such preaching as the American, in Germany. Ah, if we could only have your union of thought with heart, of strength with feeling, of science with Scripture, we might get hold on the mind of Germany with the gospel."

This thing lies partly in the mental habit of the American, but much also in the method of training—the breadth, the comprehensiveness, and the logical vigor of the American education, compared with the minuteness, the particularity, the exhaustive traditionalism, and the speculative fantasy of the German. But the comparison of these methods in their working and their results, must be reserved for one more letter.

BERLIN, July, 1873.

DEUTSCHES REICH.

—German Correspondence of N. Y. Observer.

THE HABIT OF READING.—"I have no time to read," is the common complaint, and especially of women, whose occupations are such as to prevent continuous book perusal. They seem to think because they cannot devote as much attention to books as they are compelled to devote to their avocations, that they cannot read anything. But this is a great mistake. It isn't the books we finish at a sitting which always do us the most good. Those we devour in the odd moments, half a dozen pages at a time, often give us more satisfaction, and are more thoroughly digested than those we make a particular effort to read. The men who have made their mark in the world have generally been the men who have in boyhood formed the habit of reading at every available moment, whether for five minutes or five hours.

It is the habit of reading rather than the time at our command that helps us on the road to learning. Many of the most cultivated persons, whose names have been famous as students, have given only two or three hours a day to their books. If we make use of spare minutes in the midst of our work, and read a little, if but a page or a paragraph, we shall find our brains quickened and our toil lightened by just so much increased satisfaction as the book gives us. Nothing helps along the monotonous daily round so much as fresh and striking thoughts, to be considered while our hands are busy. A new idea from a new volume is like oil which reduces the friction of the machinery of life. What we remember from brief glimpses into books often serve as a stimulus to action, and becomes one of the most precious deposits in the treasury of our recollection. All knowledge is made up of small parts, which would seem insignificant in themselves, but which, taken together, are valuable weapons for the mind and substantial armor for the soul. "Read anything continuously," says Dr. Johnson, "and you will be learned." The odd minutes which we are inclined to waste, if carefully availed of for instruction, will in the long run, make golden hours and golden days that we shall ever be thankful for.

—"Home and Society" in Scribner's for August.

JEFFERSON'S APPOINTMENTS.—In bestowing the places of the government, Jefferson evidently had in view to exalt and stimulate the intellectual side of human nature, then under a kind of ban in Christendom. Every member of his cabinet was college bred; and every man of them was in some peculiar way identified with knowledge. Madison was, above all things else, a student of constitutional science as well as of constitutional law. Gallatin, the founder of the glass manufacture of Pittsburg, was accomplished in the science of his day, eminently an intellectualized person. Dearborn, a graduate of Harvard, had also been admitted to one of the learned professions. Robert Smith, of Maryland, Secretary of the Navy, a graduate of Princeton, after long eminence at the bar, and in public life, died President of the Agricultural Society and Provost of the University of Maryland. Gideon Granger, of Connecticut, postmaster general, a graduate of Yale, a lawyer of learning and high distinction, fought through the Connecticut Legislature the liberal school-fund to which the State is so much indebted. He was noted, all his life, as the intelligent and public-spirited friend of everything high and advanced. It was he who promoted internal improvements in a manner to which the strictest constructionist could not object, by giving a thousand acres of land for the benefit of the Erie Canal. Chancellor Livingstone, whom Mr. Jefferson invited to his cabinet, and induced to go as minister to France, was the most liberal patron science had yet found in America. A graduate of King's College in New York, he spent his leisure and his income in promoting science, art, and agriculture. It was his intelligent faith and his liberal outlay of money, that enabled Robert Fulton to carry out John Fitch's idea of a steamboat. James Monroe, the least learned of the men whom Jefferson advanced, could give a glorious reason why he was *not* a graduate of college. The battle of Lexington called him away from William and Mary to the camp at Cambridge.

Let it be noted, then, as an interesting fact in political history, that the first Democratic administration paid homage to the higher attainments of man, and sought aid from the class furthest removed from the uninstructed multitude. If Jefferson had not done this from principle, he would have done it from calculation; because, knowing the people as he did, he was aware that the further they get from bowing down to fictitious distinctions, the more alive they become to those which are real. At the same time, he did not overvalue learning. "It is not by his reading in Coke Littleton," he wrote to the brother of Robert Smith, "that I am induced to this proposition (offering him the Navy Department), though that also will be of value in our administration; but from a confidence that he must, from his infancy, have been so familiarized with naval things, that he will be perfectly competent to select proper agents, and to judge of their conduct." From that day to this, as often as Mr. Jefferson's example has been

followed in this particular, the people of the United States have been gratified. What appointments more popular than those of Irving, Goodrich, Hawthorne, Bancroft, Kennedy, and Curtis?

—James Parton in July Atlantic.

UNIVERSITY TUTORS IN ENGLAND.—For the practical business of teaching the classics and mathematics no method has been hit on more satisfactory than that of the best private tutors in the English universities. One of these gentlemen takes, perhaps, four pupils. He meets A at nine o'clock. They sit at the same table; A does his work under his teacher's eye; they study together. The interest and life of the teacher quickens the pupil. The teacher shows the pupil the best way of study. At ten o'clock he gives A his directions for his private study, and meets B alone for an hour, as he has met A. At eleven o'clock he meets C. At twelve o'clock he meets D. And at some other hour in the day he meets them all; and they all work together for an hour. The teacher is thus able to consider the personal need of the pupil, and to give him the full advantage of such consideration. The pupil is able to ask the teacher just what he wants, and to show him just what are his difficulties. At the same time, all the pupils meet each other in study and recitation, compare notes, and go forward with the stimulus and sympathy of companionship.

Now we venture to say that the first of the academies or high schools of this country which will adopt some such course as this, giving to every four boys whom it fits for college one teacher of the first and best ability, whose chief duty it shall be to see that they go through their last two years of preparation thoroughly well, will be the school or academy which will, at whatever charge, receive the best and most promising pupils, and will receive the largest number of them. With a certain steady demand for superficial and almost worthless education, there is another demand for education of the very best type, the results of which may be relied upon. With the increase of the country in wealth, there grows, up the determination to have that done in the best way which is done at all. And in proportion as the young men and young women learn that there are ways in which that can be done in two years which they now do in four years, they, and those who direct their education will certainly insist upon the change.

—Rev. E. E. Hale, in Old and New for July.

THE Anderson School of Natural History, at Penikese, under the charge of Professor Agassiz, seems to be performing a good work and giving entire satisfaction. At least those who are most interested and have been spending their time and money in study there, and are thus best qualified to judge—the students—are well pleased with the exertions made in their behalf, as may be seen from the following resolutions passed at a recent meeting. The school closed last week, somewhat earlier than was expected, owing to the

fact that many of the students, being teachers whose schools open for the year about September 1, were compelled to go away previous to that time. The following are the resolutions referred to:

WE, the students of the first term of the Anderson School of Natural History, recognizing the unprecedented advantages bestowed upon us here, would respectfully and gratefully offer these resolutions:—

Resolved, That Professor Agassiz, in these new and self-sacrificing efforts to advance the interests of education in America, has given us a higher model of what the true teacher may be, and has endeared himself to us personally more than we can express.

Resolved, That we proffer our heartfelt thanks to Professor Wilder, and to Professor Packard, for their constant attendance and instruction, as well as for their able and helpful lectures.

Resolved, That to Professor Guyot, for valuable lectures on physical geography, and to others for other lectures, our thanks are due.

Resolved, That to Mr. Bicknell we are indebted for constant assistance in the use of the microscope, and for his instructive exhibitions of optical phenomena.

Resolved, That Mr. Galloupe, in furnishing the school with a yacht, and Count Pourtales, in superintending the dredging, have afforded us great pleasure, and have supplied us with fruitful objects of study.

Resolved, That we shall ever remember the benefactor whose name our school bears, as well as the constant and kindly attentions of Mrs. Agassiz, who has done so much to make our seaside studies profitable and pleasant.

A. C. AFGAR,	} Committee.
SOLOMON F. WHITNEY,	
LYDIA W. SHATTUCK,	
SARAH R. SMITH,	
HELEN B. COFFIN,	

THE COMING EXHIBITION OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.—The arrangements for the forty-second exhibition of the American Institute are nearly complete, and manufacturers, inventors, and others desirous of exhibiting articles, may forward them at once. The exhibition will be formally opened at noon on Wednesday, September 10, and will remain open during each secular day until and including Saturday, November 15, unless it shall be deemed expedient by the Board of Managers to continue open one week longer. The exhibition will be held in the American Institute Building, at 63d and 64th streets, Second and Third avenues, New York. Extensive additions have lately been made to the main building, increasing the amount of available space about 20 per cent. The front portion has been remodeled, while the building has been newly painted throughout. New floors have also been laid, and additional shafting added, to meet the demand for increased facilities.

Many important changes will be made in the system of awards. For many years it was customary to give only bronze medals. This year the awards will be:

1. "The Great Medal of the American Institute," to be awarded only to the discoverer or inventor of a machine, product or process which shall be adjudged so important in its use or application as to supplant every article previously used for accomplishing the same

purpose, or by which a favorable revolution may be wrought in some branch of the useful arts. This medal can be awarded by the Board of Managers for a machine, product or process, if actually on exhibition, by an affirmative vote of not less than ten members, after consent of the Board of Direction is first obtained.

2. The "Silver Medal," to be awarded only for a machine, product, or process of great value, and of merit superior to any other on exhibition, or in common use, and then only by an affirmative vote of at least ten members of the Board of Managers, and upon the recommendation of a majority of the judges.

3. The "Bronze Medal," which may be awarded by a vote of a majority of the whole Board of Managers, upon a favorable report of a majority of the judges, for a machine, product, or process of superior merit, the best of the kind on exhibition, or in common use, but not of sufficient importance to deserve the silver medal.

4. A "diploma," which may be awarded for a machine, product, or process of value, by an affirmative vote of a majority of the whole board. The certificate awarding any medal or diploma must be signed by the president and secretaries of the institute. The board of Managers, in addition, is authorized to offer prizes for the best specimens of workmanship and skill by apprentices, and may also grant awards to the exhibitors of cut flowers, fruits, or perishable products.

No goods will be received for competition or examination after September 15, and all goods must be removed from the exhibition building before November 29.

A DESPICABLE MULE.—The Negro and Mule (writes a friend in Clinton, Louisiana) are inseparable companions in the Southern cotton fields, and, like the Hiawathan string and bow, useless each without the other. The lazy indifference and careless cruelty of the one, and wonderful power of endurance of severe labor, bad treatment, and neglect of the other, complete the compatibility of the two races necessary for the production of four millions of bales. A characteristic anecdote may be relished by those who have had experience of the two. The spectator had taken refuge from the sun's perpendicular rays under the shade of a spreading beech, *sub tegmine fagi*, and lay recumbent, enjoying the fitful breezes and the sombre frothiness of the country newspaper. Along the dusty road which passed by this retreat came jogging a negro, mounted on a mule, both apparently fast asleep. As the somnolent pair approached the spot, some wicked sprite of the place gave the paper a flirt, which was no sooner seen and heard than the mule, as mules only know how, instantly "swapped ends," and leaving the Negro sprawling in the dirt, took his departure under full sail. The Negro, half raising himself, and wiping the dust from eyes and mouth, watched the retreating mule for some time in silence, but at length, unconscious of an auditor, gave expression to this philosophic soliloquy: "Dat's what makes me 'spise a mule!"

—Harper's Magazine.

THE CONN. SCHOOL JOURNAL.

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EDITORIAL.

THE late meeting of the National Teachers' Association, at Elmira, was without doubt a gratifying success. We may sum up as follows, the features of especial interest: There was a noble gathering of about 1,500 teachers, representing very fairly, to a large extent, the higher walks of the profession, throughout the country, very few States being unrepresented. The goodly proportion of such eminent educators as Presidents McCosh, of Princeton College, and Eliot, of Harvard, made the assemblage quite imposing. The large representation from the Southern States, consisting of President Reed, of the University of Mississippi, Professor Joynes, of Washington and Lee College, the State superintendents of Louisiana and Florida (both colored men), and others, and the cordial co-operation in the exercises was particularly gratifying. So also was the presence of officers from some of our leading colleges. The absence of representatives from others of the greater colleges was none the less noticeable. We regret that those of Connecticut were, none of them (as far as we observed), sufficiently interested to send even a tutor to take part in the proceedings.

There are especial considerations which should call out a voice from every college on these occasions; for the sentiment of this association, as indicated fully and frequently at Elmira, is drifting toward the advocacy of the ultimate absorption of colleges into the common-school system.

On two questions, at least, the Association expressed its sentiments in a way that will doubtless be felt in the subsequent treatment of the matters involved; for even when opposite positions were stoutly maintained, much light was thus thrown by able men, whose opinions are of the highest value, upon these questions, yet to be subject to legislation. The first is that of the disposition of the Japanese and Chinese Indemnity Funds, in which the sense of justice of the Association nobly pre-

vailed over their educational instincts. The second was the very important matter of government appropriations in favor of education, involving as a side issue, the claims of our Agricultural Schools. There was much spirited and profitable discussion in the various departments. A remarkable feature of the whole session was the absolute smoothness with which the machinery of this meeting was run. Everything seemed to have been duly foreseen and effectively provided for. There was a thorough organization into committees of management, and these did their work with commendable energy. Much of the success of the occasion was due to the masterly management of the convention by President Northrop. He developed the highest qualities of a presiding officer, in his readiness for every emergency, and his promptness to do the right thing, like a flash of inspiration, in the right place. It is not exaggeration to say that such conventions are often practically ruined for want of good chairmanship. We are therefore especially glad to be able to put the present success on record. The Association is indebted for much of the interest of the occasion to President McCosh (who seems to have been the great light of the session); to President Eliot, who in his youthfulness showed himself almost the peer of the learned President of Princeton; to Professor Atherton, of Rutgers College, whose scholarly papers and ready powers of debate produced a marked impression on the audience; to Professor Joy nes, of Virginia, and to others whom we have not space to mention.

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London, formerly assistant principal of the Worcester High School—who comes with the best recommendations. The upper room in the new addition to Bugbee's Block has been engaged, and will make a very suitable and pleasant location. The necessary school furniture will at once be placed in the room. Everything looks auspicious. Every man and woman of Putnam can do much to make the High School a success."

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the Association was held at Elmira, N. Y., on August 5th, 6th, and 7th. The arrangements for the meeting were very satisfactory, and the attendance was large. The first of the general sessions, which were held at the Opera House, was called to order at 10 A.M. of the 5th, by the President, Hon. B. G. Northrop of Connecticut.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. George, of Elmira. Various motions were then passed for the appointment of the usual committees, and A. E. Burnett and C. E. Vail, of Ohio, were appointed Assistant Treasurers, and R. R. Moss and D. R. Ford, of Elmira, Assistant Secretaries.

Hon. Luther Caldwell, Mayor of Elmira, delivered an elegantly worded speech of welcome.

Hon. G. M. Diven, president of the Board of Education, followed with another cordial welcome in behalf of the educational officers of the city.

President Northrop, in response, expressed his personal gratification and appreciation, and also that of the Association, with the cordial welcome received and preparations made, which excel those of any other place at which the Association has been held.

After the appointment of the usual standing committees, the president introduced for the consideration of the Association the question of the Chinese and Japanese Indemnity Funds.

Mr. Chin Laisun, of China, having been unavoidably detained from fulfilling his part, Hon. Edward Shippen, of Philadelphia, was introduced. In an interesting and able paper he reviewed the past and the wonderful present of Japan, and earnestly recommended the return of the money which General Banks denominated "blood money," to Japan, in a spirit of kindness and friendship, to be by them used as they see fit.

President Northrop spoke briefly of the influence of America, and desired that Congress take some action. Thirty-nine of 230 Japanese in school in this country have been peremptorily ordered home to Japan, probably from pecuniary considerations, but they were too sensitive and proud to acknowledge the reason that led to their recall.

Professor Atherton, of New Brunswick, N. J., was then called upon by the President. His remarks were

deeply interesting. He suggested that the Chinese and Japanese indemnity fund be separated; that the Chinese fund be returned without condition. The government must hold the Japanese for the attack on the Wyoming, which was made by a province in revolt, actual damage being but about \$20,000, and for which they have had to pay \$750,000 in gold as indemnity; it was exorbitant, and as a matter of simple good faith should be returned, perhaps conditionally, and devoted to educational purposes. It would be an act of graceful justice. The men who have come to us from Japan, students and embassies, are models of integrity and courtesy, and if we show an example of fair dealing to the Oriental nation, they will say that it is practical Christianity. If it should occur that the government should find itself embarrassed in returning this fund without consulting other powers, their consent should be obtained if possible. The money is not ours, and should no longer be permitted to burn our pockets.

Professor Northrop referred to the education of Chinese, and spoke of one that came here twenty years ago, and under a teacher now present, who prepared him for Yale College, and it was through this Chinese, on his return to his country, that this educational system commenced, and then introduced the teacher spoken of, Professor Charles Hammond, of Munson, Mass.

Mr. Frank Hall, of Elmira, was next called, and gave an interesting statement of the firing upon the Wyoming. Mr. Hall was a resident of Japan at that time, and was familiar with all the circumstances and facts as are generally known. The proposition arose, "What shall we demand?" The answer was, \$2,000,000; the English \$1,000,000, and the balance to be divided among the others; but that was not agreed to. It was then proposed to make it \$3,000,000, which was no more or less than downright robbery. All these difficulties have been a conquest with families for power, which has been studiously concealed. He advocated an unreserved return of the indemnity. We should be patient with them; they desire to grasp everything at once. The only trouble to be apprehended is that they may get into deeper difficulties.

President Northrop remarked upon the material interests of the Japanese.

Mr. R. G. Williams moved a special committee be appointed upon the Japanese indemnity question. The motion was carried.

Dr. McCosh spoke earnestly in favor of the return of the money, and suggested that the resolutions should advise caution lest it be delivered into the hands of the reactionary party, and be turned back on us.

Mr. Hall explained the condition of affairs in Japan, and the relation of the conflicting powers.

W. B. Wedgewood, Vice Chancellor of the new University of Washington, D. C., suggested very pointedly that the schoolmasters should go abroad a little, and they should be more fully represented on the floor of

Congress, where they can speak of these matters and bring them to the understanding of the members.

On motion of Mr. John Hancock, of Ohio, the subject was laid upon the table until the report of the Committee on Resolutions was received.

An invitation to the members to visit Watkins Glen, free of charge, was accepted, and an adjournment followed.

Convenient halls had been engaged for the meetings of the four departments, held in the afternoon.

THE ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

was called to order by its president, N. A. Calkins, superintendent of schools in New York City. Mr. Samuel Freeman of New Jersey, was appointed Secretary, and Mr. Wm. N. Barringer, of New Jersey, was made a member of the Publishing Committee.

Mr. George Farnham, superintendent of schools in Binghamton, N. Y., opened with a very carefully prepared address on the "Thought and Sentence Method in Elementary Reading." The treatment of the subject evinced both experience and practical skill. We have not sufficient space to give the advantages claimed for this method of instruction. The paper excited much interest in the audience, and was followed by one of no less excellence.

Dr. Edwin Leigh, of New York, discussed "The Phonetic Method with Pronouncing Orthography in its Relations to other Methods." The speaker claimed that the phonetic system may be taught in connection with the system already illustrated. It is really object teaching and phonetic reading combined. The system was illustrated by printed cards, those that are pronounced being printed in the common letter and the silent letters in hair lines. The object is to render the orthography of our language easy for the young to learn. The phonetic method simply gives the sounds of the characters represented. Phonetic reading with the object aids in the word reading. The scholar makes no blunders. Everything is plain before him, and not forgotten; it works in harmony with the word method, and doubles its efficiency. It also aids in spelling. The hair line used for silent letters attracts attention; the child forms the habit of reading every letter in the word. Latin scholars, from the habit of seeing all the letters in the word, and are always the best English spellers. He quoted Dr. Elliott, of St. Louis, in support of the theory of phonetic reading and spelling. He illustrated the different sounds of the same letters in different words. It has also especial advantages in oral teaching, as well as blackboard teaching. Wherever it has been adopted its advantages are acknowledged. It saves time. A large portion of those in schools seldom remain over three years, and half of them leave school without being able to read. He wished them to learn a system by which they could learn to read without a teacher.

Dr. Davis, of New Jersey, expressed his thanks to Mr. Leigh for inventing this system, which has been of

so much benefit to his own children. Dr. Leigh's method has the merit of teaching rapidly, but that is not its chief merit. The chief object of this and every good method is the development of the mental powers.

Mr. W. N. Barringer, of Newark, N. J., spoke animatedly against methods. To have principles understood by the teacher is all important; the method is of little moment; it will bubble up spontaneously. We are running mad after methods. This pronouncing method is the least objectionable he had seen, because it taught the child to help himself.

Mrs. Rickoff, of Cleveland, Ohio, spoke very much to the acceptance of the audience, answering some of the arguments of the last speaker, and commending object methods.

Mr. Barringer explained that he did not condemn all methods, but would adopt from all methods what is good. He wished his method based upon principle, and not his principle on method.

Mr. Ross, of Seneca, believed that the word system is not the true system.

Mr. C. Goodwin Clark, of Boston, believed in Mr. Leigh's method, which he had followed for six years (as principal of the Lincoln School), and which is being generally adopted in that city.

Mr. Freeborn, of Wellsville, N. Y., spoke in favor of combination of the phonetic, word, and sentence method, giving preference to the phonetic.

Mr. Abbot, of Brooklyn, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That we believe the phonetic word and sentence method are all parts of the same method, and we approve their use.

Mr. B. W. Downing, of Long Island, offered the following as a substitute:

Resolved, That the thought and sentence method, represented by G. L. Farnham, and the phonetic method, with pronouncing orthography or relations to other methods, by Dr. Edwin Leigh, is the best method for teaching elementary reading.

Mr. A. J. Hanna, of Long Island, moved to refer the whole subject to the Committee on Resolutions. With-out acting upon either of the resolutions the department, on motion, adjourned.

IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION,

President Reed, of the University of Missouri, presided in the absence of the regular incumbent, Mr. J. D. Runkle.

President Eliot, of Harvard College, in an impressive way discussed the question of a National University. After detailing at considerable length the history of the action of the Association on this subject in 1869, he proceeded to examine the two bills which were brought before Congress in 1872, and to discuss the true policy of the Government upon this matter. Under the first head, it was shown that although the Association had from time to time appointed committees to consider

the subject, yet it had never committed itself to any definite policy, and the bills introduced into Congress for the establishment of such a university had been almost solely the work of individuals, and without authoritative support. Passing to consider the bills introduced for the creation of a university, they are found to be crude in conception, cumbrous in the provision of the machinery of administration, and impracticable of execution. But even if these essential defects could be remedied, it is no part of the duty of Government to maintain a magnificent university. "The general notion that a beneficent government should provide and control an elaborate organization for teaching, just as it maintains an army, a navy, or a post-office, is of European origin, being a legitimate corollary to the theory of government by Divine right." But the arguments in support of this view prove a great deal too much. For if they have the least tendency to persuade us that Government should direct any part of secular education, with how much greater force do they apply to the conduct by Government of the religious education of the people. There is one broad reason why Government should not establish and maintain a university. If the people of the United States have any special destiny and peculiar function in the world, it is to try to work out under extraordinarily favorable circumstances the problem of free institutions for a heterogeneous, rich, multitudinous population, spread over a vast territory. We indeed want to breed scholars, artists, poets, historians, novelists, engineers, physicians, jurists, theologians, and orators; but first of all we want to breed a race of independent, self-reliant freemen, capable of helping, guiding, and governing themselves. Now the habit of being helped by Government, even if it be to things good in themselves—to churches, universities, and railroads—is a most insidious and irresistible enemy of republicanism, for the essence of republicanism is self-reliance.

Discussion followed, which was participated in by Mr. W. B. Wedgewood, President McCosh, President Eliot, Mr. Sprague of Washington, Mr. Atkinson of Boston, Dr. Reed, Mr. Hancock of Cincinnati, Mr. Vail of Rochester, Mr. Harris of St. Louis, Prof. Root of Missouri, and Prof. Atherton.

IN THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT,

The exercises were ushered in by a paper from the pen of Prof. Richard Edwards, president of the Illinois State Normal School. In the absence of the writer, the paper was read by Prof. Hagar, of the Normal School at Salem, Mass.

This was followed by a brisk discussion, in which the following gentlemen took part: R. G. Williams of Vermont, C. C. Rounds of Maine, J. H. House of New York, Oliver Airy of Wisconsin, I. N. Carleton of Connecticut, M. A. Newell of Maryland, C. H. Verrill, George P. Beard of Pennsylvania, and others.

The following committee on nomination was appointed: Miss Delia A. Lathrop of Ohio, and Messrs. I. N.

Carleton, C. C. Rounds, J. H. Hoose, and D. B. Hagar.

Prof. A. G. Boyden, of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, Mass., ably presided over this department.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

After some preliminary business, a paper on School House Plans was presented by Prof. A. J. Rickoff, superintendent of the schools of Cleveland, Ohio. He illustrated his remarks with drawings upon the black-board, and understood thoroughly the workings of the subject upon which he spoke. He was especially strong upon ventilation and sunlight.

J. H. Binford, superintendent of schools at Richmond, Va., read a paper upon "The Relation between School Boards and Superintendents." It was a thoughtful production and full of information. In the discussion upon this subject which followed, Mr. Packard, superintendent of schools at Saratoga, Mr. Hancock of Ohio, A. Armstrong of Iowa, J. P. Wickersham of Penn., Prof. Rickoff, Prof. McCray of Baltimore, A. P. Marble of Mass., and Mr. Sawyer of Conn., joined. There was a goodly number present, and the discussion was full of interest.

(To be concluded in October number).

We are sorry to find that most of our rich store of Connecticut school news, as well as all book notices, are crowded out of this number. Our local interests shall receive better treatment in the October JOURNAL.

PUBLISHER'S NOTES.

HON. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, one of the United States Commissioners to the Vienna Exhibition, writes home that the "Medal of Merit" has been awarded to Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, Boston, in consideration of their publication of Worcester's series of Dictionaries. "Boston," the commissioner writes, "comes out of the competition covered with honor; various high honors were reported by different sections of the jury, but as the Grand Diploma of Honor was voted unanimously, all other honors, by the rules, were excluded."

[From the Boston Literary Bulletin.]

The subject of drawing, as a branch of study in the public schools, has been widely agitated during the last two years. Mr. Walter Smith has come over from England with the announced purpose of increasing our national wealth by filling with artistic zeal and knowledge every pupil in our public schools, and thus increasing the inventive and creative capacity of our people. This is a magnificent theory; but, as we said in a review of his "Art Education," some months ago, not wholly practicable. Of Mr. Smith's enthusiasm and personal acquirements, there can be no question; but when the statement is publicly and repeatedly made that to him belongs the credit for what has been accomplished in drawing in the Boston schools, it is time that his pretensions should be rebuked. If the history of public in-

struction in drawing shall ever be written, it will appear that if any individual can claim special praise for the artistic progress of Boston pupils, the honor properly belongs to W. N. Bartholomew, under whose personal teachings, and using whose system of instruction, those pupils have done their best work. The exhibition of their drawings in 1870, months before Mr. Smith came to live in this country, is acknowledged to have been superior to any of his successors—for the reason, especially, that it was the fairest index of the proficiency of the pupils. The drawing books used in daily lessons were exhibited; whereas at later exhibitions only compositions specially prepared for the occasion were shown. We call attention to these facts without prejudice in any direction, and only as a matter of justice to Mr. Bartholomew, whose services in the cause of art have been too valuable to be so suddenly overshadowed by the claims of a new-comer. We will cite but one other fact, but a suggestive one. The Evening Drawing Schools were established in 1870; after they had been in operation one year, Mr. Smith assumed the supervision of them. His influence upon their prosperity is shown by these figures: The number of applicants for instruction during the first year, was over 1,000; in the second year (under Smith), 750; and in the third year (still under Smith), 450. There was thus a falling off of more than one-half in the number of those who desired to learn drawing, and these belong to the very classes which Smith promises specially to benefit—mechanics and workmen of all grades. Mr. Bartholomew was the first teacher of Drawing in the Boston public schools; to him mainly are we indebted for the recognition of it as a permanent department of study; and whatever advances have been made in artistic skill and knowledge by Boston pupils are, in justice, to be credited to him and his system. We have written the foregoing without Mr. Bartholomew's knowledge, and at the instigation, or in the interest of no one, and would have it construed as simply the expression of an honest desire to give honor to whom honor is due.

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